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APPROXIMATION TO THE OPERATOR $\sin(2x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$

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THE EIGENVALUES OF THE PSEUDOSPECTRAL FOURIER

APPROXIMATION TO THE OPERATOR $\sin(2x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$

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Abstract

In this note we show that the eigenvalues Z_i of the pseudospectral Fourier approximation to the operator $\sin(2x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ satisfy

$$R_e Z_i = \pm 1 \quad \text{or} \quad R_e Z_i = 0.$$

Whereas this does not prove stability for the Fourier method, applied to the hyperbolic equation

$$U_t = \sin(2x)U_x \quad -\pi < x < \pi;$$

it indicates that the growth in time of the numerical solution is essentially the same as that of the solution to the differential equation.

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1. Introduction

Let us consider the problem

$$\begin{aligned}U_t - GU &= 0 & 0 \leq x \leq 2\pi \\U(x,0) &= U^0(x)\end{aligned}\tag{1.1}$$

where

$$G = a(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} .\tag{1.2}$$

In the Fourier pseudospectral (collocation) method, we seek a trigonometric polynomial of degree N , U_N , that satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}(U_N)_t - G_N U_N &= 0 \\U_N(x,0) &= U_N^0(x)\end{aligned}\tag{1.3}$$

where

$$G_N = P_N G ;$$

P_N is the pseudospectral projection operator [5]. It is known [2] that when $a(x)$ does not change sign in the interval, the semidiscrete solution of (1.3) is stable. When $a(x)$ changes sign in the interval, the situation is much more complicated. Gottlieb, Orszag and Turkel [1] have proved stability for the case where $a(x)$ is of the form

$$a(x) = \alpha \sin(x) + \beta \cos(x) + \gamma .\tag{1.4}$$

In [4], Tadmor argues that this stability proof results from the special form of $a(x)$ in (1.4) and cannot be extended. In the next section we prove a theorem related to the problem of stability of (1.1) where $a(x)$ is a second degree trigonometric polynomial.

2. The Theorem and Its Proof

Theorem: Considering (1.1), (1.2), where $a(x) = \sin(2x)$, then the eigenvalues λ_i^N of G_N satisfy

$$R_e \lambda_i^N = -1 \quad \text{or} \quad R_e \lambda_i^N = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad R_e \lambda_i^N = 1. \quad (2.1)$$

Proof:

The projected subspace V_N that results from using the operator P_N is spanned by the following $2N$ basis functions

$$V_N = S_p \{1, \cos(x), \dots, \cos(Nx), \sin(x), \dots, \sin(N-1)x\}. \quad (N \text{ even}) \quad (2.2)$$

Define the following four subspaces of V_N

$$\begin{aligned} W_1 &= S_p \{\cos(x), \cos(3x), \dots, \cos((N-1)x)\} \\ W_2 &= S_p \{\sin(x), \sin(3x), \dots, \sin((N-1)x)\} \\ W_3 &= S_p \{\sin(2x), \sin(4x), \dots, \sin((N-2)x)\} \\ W_4 &= S_p \{1, \cos(2x), \dots, \cos(Nx)\}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

It is easily verified that

$$V_N = W_1 \oplus W_2 \oplus W_3 \oplus W_4 \quad (2.4)$$

and each W_i is invariant of G_N ; therefore we can discuss separately the four matrices which represent G_N in each one of the subspaces W_i .

Define now

$$B_i^M = [G_N]_{w_i} \quad 1 \leq i \leq 4 \quad (M = \frac{N}{2}); \quad (2.5)$$

then by using elementary trigonometric relations we get that B_i^M are tridiagonal matrices whose elements are:

$$B_1^M = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -3 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & -5 & & \\ & 3 & \cdot & \cdot & \\ & & \cdot & \cdot & -N+3 \\ & & & \cdot & 0 & -N+1 \\ & & & & N-3 & N-1 \end{pmatrix} \quad ; \quad \frac{N}{2} \times \frac{N}{2}$$

$$B_2^M = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & & & \\ 1 & 0 & -5 & & \\ & 3 & \cdot & \cdot & \\ & & \cdot & \cdot & -N+3 \\ & & & \cdot & 0 & -N+1 \\ & & & & N-3 & -N+1 \end{pmatrix} \quad ; \quad \frac{N}{2} \times \frac{N}{2}$$

$$B_3^M = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -4 & & & \\ 2 & 0 & -6 & & \\ & 4 & \cdot & \cdot & \\ & & \cdot & \cdot & -N+4 \\ & & & \cdot & 0 & -N+2 \\ & & & & N-4 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad ; \quad \left(\frac{N}{2} - 1\right) \times \left(\frac{N}{2} - 1\right)$$

$$B_4^M = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 & & & \\ 0 & 0 & -4 & & \\ & 2 & \cdot & \cdot & \\ & & \cdot & \cdot & -N+2 \\ & & & \cdot & 0 & 0 \\ & & & & N-2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad ; \quad \left(\frac{N}{2} + 1\right) \left(\frac{N}{2} + 1\right)$$

let A be any tridiagonal matrix:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & c_1 & & & \\ b_2 & a_2 & c_2 & & \\ & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \\ & & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ & & & b_{n-1} & a_{n-1} & c_{n-1} \\ & & & & b_n & a_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

and let A_k be the submatrix

$$A_k = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & c_1 & & & \\ b_2 & a_2 & c_2 & & \\ & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \\ & & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ & & & b_{k-1} & a_{k-1} & c_{k-1} \\ & & & & b_k & a_k \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.7)$$

Upon defining

$$q_k(A) = \det A_k \quad (2.8)$$

it is easily verified that

$$q_{k+1}(A) = a_{k+1} q_k(A) - b_{k+1} c_k q_{k-1}(A) \quad (2.9)$$

and

$$q_n(A) = \det A.$$

In the following we treat each one of the matrices B_i^M , $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ separately.

Lemma 1: The matrix B_1^M has one zero eigenvalue, and all its other eigenvalues λ_i satisfy $R_e \lambda_i = 1$.

Proof: For any M define

$$C_M = 2B_1^M - \lambda I.$$

The characteristic polynomial of $2B_1^M$ is given by

$$Q_M(\lambda) = \det C_M \quad (2.10)$$

and using (2.8)

$$Q_M(\lambda) = q_M(C_M).$$

We define now the following family of polynomials (in the variable λ)

$$P_0 = 1 \quad P_1 = -(\lambda + 1) \quad (2.11)$$

$$P_{k+1} = -\lambda P_k + (4k^2 - 1) P_{k-1} \quad 1 \leq k < \infty.$$

Note that from (2.9) and the structure of C_M

$$P_k = q_k(C_M) \quad 2 \leq k < M; \quad (2.12)$$

however (2.12) is not true for $k = M$; rather we have

$$Q_M(\lambda) = (2M - 1 - \lambda) P_{M-1} + (4(M-1)^2 - 1) P_{M-2} \quad 2 < M. \quad (2.13)$$

From (2.11) we get

$$Q_M(\lambda) = (2M - 1) P_{M-1} + P_M \quad 2 < M. \quad (2.14)$$

Using (2.14) and (2.13) results in

$$Q_{M+1}(\lambda) = -\lambda P_M + (2M+1) Q_M \quad 2 < M. \quad (2.15)$$

Finally we solve (2.15) for P_M in terms of $Q_M(\lambda)$, $Q_{M+1}(\lambda)$ and substitute the result in (2.14). We thus get the polynomials $Q_M(\lambda)$, $M \geq 2$ that satisfy the following recursion formula

$$\begin{aligned} Q_2(\lambda) &= \lambda(\lambda-2) ; Q_3(\lambda) = -\lambda(\lambda^2-4\lambda+13) \\ Q_{M+1}(\lambda) &= (2-\lambda) Q_M(\lambda) + (2M-1)^2 Q_{M-1}(\lambda) \end{aligned} \quad \begin{matrix} (2.16) \\ 3 < M. \end{matrix}$$

It is easy to verify now that $\lambda = 0$ is an eigenvalue of $2B_1^M$. In fact $\lambda = 0$ is a root of $Q_2(\lambda)$ and $Q_3(\lambda)$ and therefore of any $Q_M(\lambda)$. We define now

$$x = i(2 - \lambda) \quad (a) \quad (2.17)$$

and

$$R_M(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda} Q_M(\lambda) \cdot (i)^{M-1} \quad (b)$$

to get

$$R_2 = -x ; R_3 = x^2 - 9$$

and

$$R_{M+1} = x R_M - (2M-1)^2 R_{M-1} \quad M \geq 3. \quad (2.18)$$

The relation (2.18) defines $R_M(x)$ as a family of orthogonal polynomials on the real axis. Therefore, for every M the roots of $R_M(x)$ are real, which implies by (2.17)(a) that $2 - \lambda$ are imaginary. Therefore, the eigenvalues of the matrices $2B_1^M$ for any M have real part equal to 2. This completes the proof of Lemma 1.

Lemma 2: For any M the matrix B_2^M has one zero eigenvalue and the real part of the others is -1 .

Proof: The proof is an immediate result of the fact that in view of (2.9)

$$q_k(-B_2^M - \lambda I)$$

satisfy the same recurrence formula as $q_k(B_1^M - \lambda I)$.

Lemma 3: The eigenvalues of B_3^M are purely imaginary.

Proof: Define the matrix

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & & & \\ & 1/\sqrt{4} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1/\sqrt{N-2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then it is clear that

$$D^{-1} B_3^M D$$

is a skew symmetric matrix, and therefore its eigenvalues are purely imaginary. The same is of course true for B_3^M .

Lemma 4: The eigenvalues of B_4^M are purely imaginary.

Proof: From the definition of B_3^M and B_4^M it follows that if P_k is characteristic polynomial of $(B_3^M)_{k \times k}$ then $\lambda^2 P_k$ is the characteristic polynomial of $(B_4^M)_{(k+2) \times (k+2)}$. Thus the eigenvalues of B_4^M are purely imaginary.

The proof of Lemma 4 concludes the proof of the theorem.

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